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GUIDELINES AND INDICATORS FOR PROMOTING CO-OPERATIVE AND SELF-HELP HOUSING AND OTHER FORMS OF PUBLIC PARTICIPATION

INTRODUCTION

1. The current housing crisis in Africa is well known, but it is worth while going over the extent of the problem once again. The alarming growth of slums and shanty towns in the areas around all large African cities is directly related to this housing crisis, with all that that implies in terms of living conditions for the people who inhabit them.

2. The people most concerned by this housing problem are, naturally, the poorest who make up the great majority in African cities.

3. The urgency and gravity of the housing situation in third world countries in general and Africa in particular provide justification for the following recommendations made at the 1976 Vancouver Conference: "national housing policies must aim at providing adequate shelter and services to the lower income groups, distributing available resources on the basis of greatest needs", "a major part of housing policy efforts should consist of programmes and instruments which actively assist people in continuing to provide better quality housing for themselves, individually or co-operatively".1/ It was for the same reasons that the United Nations General Assembly in December 1981 adopted Resolution 36/71, making 1987 the International Year of shelter for the Homeless in developing countries.

4. The reason for the housing crisis on the African continent is the lack of balance between the consistently growing demand for housing, the ability of African countries to meet this demand for various reasons, including very high construction costs, and housing policies ill-suited to the needs of population.

5. The very high demand for the housing in African countries is principally the result of high urban growth on the continent; over the past twenty years such growth has averaged 5 per cent.

6. Experience in various African countries has shown that the production of traditional types of housing by the conventional sector is no answer to the crisis because of the very high cost of construction; on the other hand, co-operative, self-help and other forms of housing policy involving public participation have in many cases made possible the mass production of low-cost housing and seem to be appropriate solutions to the housing situation in Africa.

7. It is, therefore, necessary to promote co-operative housing, self-help housing schemes and other forms of public participation.

8. To promote means "advance, help forward, encourage, support actively, initiate...".2/

9. The approach taken in this report - promoting co-operative housing, self-help housing schemes and other forms of public participation - is a dynamic one. The aim is to break out of the formal framework of recommendations so that African countries can provide themselves with the ways and means of effectively promoting co-operative and self-help housing

1/ See reference 7.
2/ The Consise Oxford Dictionary of Current English, 6th ed., A.B. Sykes, ed.,

schemes and other forms of public participation.

10. The report begins by outlining Africa's currnet housing problems, then it defines the concepts of co-operative housing, self-help housing and other forms of public participation. The third, and most important, section dwells on the need to promote such policies A final section puts folrard guidelines and indicators for promoting co-operative housing, self-help housing and other forms of public participation.

THE HOUSING SITUATION IN AFRICA: SCOPE OF THE PROBLEM

11. Rapid urban growth in Africa in the post-independence years has led to a very high demand for housing which, for economic reasons, most African countries cannot meet.

12. Over the past 10 years urban growth in Africa has been the highest in the world, at 5.3 per cent, as against 3.6 per cent in Latin America and 1.1 per cent in Europe.3/ It has been estimated that, leaving aside the natural demographic growth of the urban population, almost 90 per cent of urban growth in Africa is the result of migration from the country side to the cities.

13. To meet the demand for housing prompted by this high urban growth on the African continent, it was estimated in 1976 that between 10 and 13 new housing units per 1000 inhabitants would have to be built, 4/ while the need was for 8 to 10 units per 1000 inhabitants for all other regions of the world. In 1980 the African countries' housing requirements were put at 1.7 million new units,5/ furthermore, 3.25 million units needed to be built to house the 19.5 million urban homeless (assuming two rooms per unit and three people per room).6/ The Ivory Coast alone was 50,000 housing units short in 1976.

14. In 1976 7/ Africa was building on average 3 housing units per 1000 inhabitants per year, which is well below the norm of 10 housing units per 1000 inhabitants recommended by the United Nations.8/

15. One of the many direct consequences of this housing situation has been the growth rou all large African cities of shanty towns in which the least well-off segments of the urban population live.

16. Today it is estimated that approximately 50 to 80 per cent of urban dwellers in most African countries live in shanty towns, often in very difficult conditions, completely bereft of such minimum provisions as a supply of drinking water or sanitary facilities, in homes built of flimsy or semi-durable stuff such as packing cases, "salvaged" materials and so forth (it is estimated 9/ that some 26 per cent of the people living in shanty town inhabit makeshift shelters and are virtually homeless).

3/ See Annex II: Average yearly urban growth.
4/ See reference 9.p.19.
5/ See reference 5, p.19.
6/ E/ECA/HUS/7, p.8
7/ See reference 9, p.19.
8/ E/ECA/HUS/1, p.7.
9/ E/ECA/HUS/7, p.7.

17. A survey in 18 African countries showed that 25 to 30 per cent of the urban population lives on incomes markedly below the urban poverty threshold.10/ According to a survey conducted among shanty-town dwellers in Kenya and Zambia, average monthly income per household was 65 US dollars in Lusaka (Georgetown area) and 74 dollars in Nairobi (Kawangware) at a time when the absolute poverty thresholds for these two cities were 175 and 122 dollars respectively.11/

18. Many African countries have realized that the traditional building sector was not providing enough housing to meet the needs of their populations principally because of the very high cost of housing construction.

Table 1. African countries within highest concentrations of urban poor

Country	Number of urban poor (thousands)	Urban population in 1975 (thousands)
Nigeria	3,760 (1975)	12,000
Egypt	3,500 (1976)	16,000
Morocco	3,470 (1977)	6,500
Ethiopia	2,000 (1977)	3,000
Zaire	1,700 (1977)	8,500
Algerie	1,400 (1977)	8,500

Source . Mausouri, Z, Rapport du séminaire sur l'amélioration de l'habitat urbain (seminar organized in Abidjan in 1980 by UNCHS (Habitat) and the World Bank Economic Development Institute) (1980).

19. In wide-ranging attempts by African countries to cope with the crisis of mass housing, co-operative and self-help schemes and other forms of public participation have proved to be apt solutions.

CO-OPERATIVE HOUSING, SELF-HELP HOUSING AND OTHER FORMS OF PUBLIC PARTICIPATION

20. The concepts of co-operative and self-help housing and other forms of public participation vary from one African country to another.

A. Co-operative housing

21. According to a document published by the United Nations,12/ housing co-operatives are "any form of organization and action in which groups of people, small or large, undertake co-operatively to obtain housing to be owned by those who occupy it.'

22. Housing co-operatives can be broadly defined as voluntary associations of people based on mutual help and solidarity with common objectives: the production of low-cost housing and the provision of related services for the benefit of the co-operating parties.

10/ See reference 5, p.10.
11/ E/ECA/HUS/7, p.13.
12/ See reference 1, p.2.

Generally, such associations brings together people with common interest belonging to one social and occupational category or one basic group of professions (for example, national education co-operatives or craftsmen's co-operatives); grouping of other kinds can, however, exist.

23. The purpose of a housing co-operative is to alleviate the shortage of housing due to shortages of the means of production in the public sector by using the personal initiative of the co-operating parties to improve their domestic living conditions. The underlying principle is that they do not make profits on their activities, dividing tasks and benefits equally among the membership irrespective of members' initial contributions (financial or "sweat equity").

24. Housing co-operatives are not building contractors; their role is generally to oversee the building work and includes acquisition of the land and the management of building schemes. The housing built is rented out or put up for sale. In the case of rental, the co-operative members pay rent which entitles them to enjoyment of the housing they occupy, in the case of sale, they acquire title to the housing in accordance with an acquisition process laid down and accepted in advance.

25. Co-operatives can be "short-lived" (in Egypt for example), being dissolved upon completion of the building programmes, or "permanent" managing the housing upon completion and thus becoming building management co-operatives.

26. Under this topic of how housing co-operatives function, more detailed attention will be paid to funding problems since the very nature of co-operative activities requires substantial investments to be recouped over long periods.

(i) The funding of housing co-operatives

27. A number of bodies and institutions are involved in financing affordable housing in Africa. They include international banks such as the World Bank, through its Agency for International Development (AID) by bilaterol government bodies, quasi-governmental bodies such as the African Development Bank (ADB) through "Shelter Afrique", its specialized subsidary set up in response to the 1978 recommendation by the United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (UNCHS), the Islamic Development Bank (IDB) and the Arab Bank for Economic Development in Africa (ABEDA).

28. Very few bodies or institutions, however, specialize in funding co-operative housing in African countries. Housing co-operatives set most of their funds from the co-operative sector in the form of savings and credit associations; it is estimated that 20 to 30 per cent of the loans granted by these associations (medium-term, 3 to 5 year loans at very low interest 1 per cent or so are for co-operative housing construction.13/

29. In addition to the traditional financial sector which includes private and semi-private institutions (building societies, savings and lending banks, ordinary banks and insurance companies), Government institutions and bodies such as building societies play a substantial part in the funding of housing co-operatives. In eastern and central African countries, for example, it is usually national housing boards that provide the funds for co-operative housing construction through local authorities which are responsible for managing the building projects and guaranteeing repayment of the boards' loans.

13/ See reference 1, p.3.

30. The other sources of funds for co-operative housing are co-operative members' savings and the financial help given to them by their relatives and friends.

B. Self-help housing

31. The aim of self-help housing schemes is to minimize intervention by the public sector by making maximum use of private-sector labour and resources. Dwellings are constructed in successive states depending on their owners' financial means and housing needs, and in most cases the owner does not become directly involved in the construction work.

32. Broadly speaking, there are two types of self-help housing projects in Africa: site-and-services schemes and plot-plus-core-unit system.

33. In the case of site-and-service schemes, the public authorities provide individuals with plots of drained land equipped with a minimum of basic infrastructure, such as primary road networks, drinking water supplies and sewage facilities. The plot-plus-core-unit system entails providing individuals with drained plots as in the preceding example, but these plots now also contain the rndimentary fabric of the eventual dwellings: foundations, structural elements, some building materials etc.

34. The principal features of interest in self-help housing schemes are how the building materials to complete the work are supplied and how the actual building work is managed.

(i) Building material supplies

35. The various ways used to provide building materials are shaped by the living standards of the people concerned (low and irregular income) and the process used in building self-help housing ("step-by-step" construction). Building materials are purchased in small quantities as the work proceeds, reducing transport and warehousing costs to a minimum since, in view of the owners' irregular incomes, cash payment is always demanded.

36. The arrangem nts for supplying building materials tend to be informal and flexible because there are no rigidly laid down administrative or commercial procedures. There are several diffeeent systems, each with its advantages and disadvantages.

37. The owner of the dwelling can get his supplies from the main contractor. The principal advantage of this is that he can get the building materials he needs regularly; on the other hand, the main contractor's administrative procedures can sometimes be lengthy.

38. The owner can also obtain materials directly from the suppliers against purchase invoices supplied by the contractor. As such invoices can only be used to buy building materials, giving credit in this form ensures that it is really used for housing construction. Individuals can, however, experience difficulties in obtaining building materials: transport problems of the construction site is far from large urban centres, suppliers' out of stock etc.

39. There is another system of supply which allows checks to be made on how the credit granted to the owner is used: the owner can claim reimbursement of sums already spent on

building materials.

40. Whatever means is used to provide building materials the main idea is to ensure that the loans granted are actually used to purchase materials. Experience in a number of African countries has been that credit given to low-income earners for the construction of self-help housing tends to be used for other purposes, and this serves to perpetuate rather than resolve housing problems.

(ii) Management of self-help construction work

41. According to an ILO document, construction management can be defined as "the overall planning, control and co-ordination of a project from inception and completion aimed at meeting a client's requirements and ensuring completion on time, within cost and its required quality standards".14/

42. The characteristic feature of construction work on self-help housing is its flexibility, due to the absence of rigid procedures which enables the contractor to make allowance for the irregular flows of money from the people concerned and the piecemeal progress on construction.

C. Other forms of public participation

43. Public participation in the production of low-income housing varies in form between countries according to the experience they have acquired.

44. According to the report of the United Nations Conference on Human Settlements 15/ public participation makes possible the dynamic incorporation of the people in the economic, social and political life of a country in order to secure effective participation in collective decisions on the production, consumption and distribution of goods. For the purposes of this document "goods" means housing for people on low incomes.

45. Participation may be horizontal, between governmental decision-making bodies at the same level, or vertical.

46. Vertical participation may be "top-down" or vice versa, the base being the least well-off sectors of the population and the top being the governmental bodies with the power to take decisions. "Top-down" popular participation implies that the public authorities agree with the less well-off members of the population on the decisions taken to deal with their housing problems; "bottom-up" popular participation suggests involvement by the less well-off sectors in decisions by governmental bodies on housing policies and programmes. This latter type of popular participation lies at the heart of a democratic system of public participation.

47. The purpose of public participation is to make the population at large more keenly aware of the extent of housing problems so that it will itself look for alternative solutions.

14/ See reference 6, p. 10.
15/ See reference 7, pp.71-72.

48. Co-operative and self-help housing and other forms of public participation are helping to overcome the housing crisis in the bulk of African countries although the contribution they make varies according to each country's individual experience. Emphasis must be laid on the need to promote co-operative and self-help housing and other forms of public participation since such projects are acceptable alternative solutions to the housing situation in Africa; in the face, moreover, of steadily rising demand for housing by a constantly growing population whose incomes are not growing so fast, projects of these kinds, which permit housing to be produced at relatively low cost, would appear to be appropriate alternatives.

THE CASE FOR PROMOTING CO-OPERATIVE AND SELF-HELP HOUSING AND OTHER FORMS OF PUBLIC PARTICIPATION

A. How co-operative and self-help housing and other forms of public participation can help to resolve housing problems in African countries

(i) Co-operative housing

49. Housing co-operatives in many European countries have done a great deal to resolve the housing crisis by increasing the housing production capacity of the public and private sectors.

50. For a variety of reasons housing co-operatives in Africa have not on the whole been so successful in encouraging the large-scale production of low-cost housing for the least well-off segments of the population. It is accepted that housing co-operatives are not the only solution to housing problems in African countries, and alternative solutions must be sought.

51. There have, however, been some success stories 16/ in which housing co-operatives have proved to be an effective way of speeding up the production of low-cost housing for low-income earners. These are in Botswana and Lesotho (Lesotho Low-cost Housing Company Ltd., and the Mohalalitoe Co-operative Housing Society, for example). In the 1970s in the United Republic of Tanzania a pilot project by the Mwenge Co-operative Housing Society resulted in the construction of 400 housing units. In Ghana, the Tema Housing Co-operative Society Ltd. built 100 housing units between 1973 and 1978.

(ii) Self-help housing

52. Generally speaking, self-help housing associations in African countries have produced more housing than co-operatives, mostly using the serviced-site approach. Plot-plus-core-unit schemes and improved sanitation in shanty towns are also effective ways of improving housing conditions for people on low incomes.

53. Some examples of interesting self-help housing construction projects may be cited here: the pilot project of 200 units built using local materials in Khartoum (Sudan), and the project at Mbabane (Swaziland). 17/ In the latter case 24 families joined forces to provide the labour and funds for housing construction using loans taken out individually by each family from the Swaziland Development and Savings Bank; the families handled 85 per cent of all work involved in building 96 housing units.

16/ See reference 8.
17/ Ibid.

54. In Kenya as in other African countries unserviced society schemes have enabled low-cost housing to be built to suit the requirements and financial limitations of low-income earners. Fifty per cent of the housing programmes in Kenya's most recent plan (1979-1983) were aimed at low-income earners (serviced sites, improvements to sponteneous settlements, etc.). 18/

B. Co-operative and self-help housing and other forms of public participation: ADVantages and problems

55. Co-operative and self-help housing and other forms of public participation are an efficient way of co-ordinating efforts by the public authorities and private entrepreneurs to meet housing demand, particularly from low-income earners. Such policies make for optimum use if resources African countries are short of (finance, technology, qualified labour etc.) in the large-scale production of high-quality housing at low cost.

56. Such policies prompt the general public to take an interest in the housing crisis and join in the search for solutions that suit local condition. Housing co-operatives can serve as go-betweens and encourage dialogue between individuals and public authorities, private and semi-private organizations and institutions directly involved in the housing sector (local government, banks, savings and loan institutions, building contractors etc. as a as a way to defend the interests of co-operative members.

57. Building co-operative and self-help housing encourages people to save because they realise that what they save will help to fund their own housing. Low-income earners can through housing co-operatives obtain loans from financing institutions to which they would not otherwise be entitled in view of their irregular incomes.

58. Because they have the wherewithal to acquire land, housing co-operatives can foster the ownership by individuals of the plots of land they occupy; this is one way of dealing with the problems of land status that confront people living in African cities, particularly those on low incomes. The problem of land status is the result of the contradiction between customary African law, according to which the land belongs to the dirst occupant, and the Western law, inherited from colonial times, in force in most African countries.

59. Housing co-operatives can lead to the emergence of co-operatives of other kinds such as credit and savings co-operations. They can diversify into other housing-related sectors, such as building materials manufacture, housing maintenance, furniture manufacture, handicrafts and the provision of miscellaneous services for co-operative members. In some European and Latin American countries housing co-operatives buy food at wholesale prices for their members arrange transport for children, and build leisure facilities and community amenities such as schools and dispensaries.

60. Assisted self-build projects are a fiting answer to the demand for housing and the financial limitations of low-income earners. They allow for flexibility on the part of the contractors and are of obvious socio-economic benefit in terms of the labour used and the knowledge of different aspects of housing construction that the labourers can pick up on the job.

18/ See reference 3, p.109.

61. In sum, co-operative and self-help housing projects and other forms of public participation could do more to improve socio-economic conditions for low-income earners and promote, development in Africa if they were more thoroughly integrated into the general fabric of each country. They could then set an example to and estimulate other sectors of activity.

62. In addition to such general problems there are specific difficulties with funding and technical assistance. The existing systems for funding co-operative and self-help housing and other forms of public participation are rigid and inefficient; very few financial organizations or institutions will grant loans for such building projects. The reason is that the institutions have no guarantee that the debt will be repaid, partly because of the low and irregular earnings of the people concerned and partly because the quality of the actual building rules mortgaging out. Funding provided by public authorities is insufficient, and ill-suited to dealing with housing problems especially when the allocation of resources to different sectors of activities is poorly planned: the less resources one has, the more strictly they must be managed.

63. As regards technical assistance, experience in many African countries indicates a shortage of the competent project management services that would encourage private initiative. There is also a shortage of services to deal with miscellaneous administrative and technical problems in projects of this kind.

64. Broadly speaking, many African countries realise the importance of housing problems and the need to produce low-cost housing, but they do not provide themselves with the ways and means of promoting co-operative and self-help housing or other forms of public participation. Yet housing needs are always on the increase while the resources available in most countries are not growing so fast (see Annex V: GDP growth per capita).

C. Housing problems: scope and prospects

65. Taking the Ivory Coast as an example, it has been estimated in the light of high urban growth (10.5 per cent per year) and cumulative shortfalls in housing production that 175,000 housing units need to be built in Abidjan by 1990,19/ housing construction capacity was estimated at 6,000 units per year, and annual requirements at 25,000 units.

66. Between 1975 and the year 2000 the urban population in Africa will triple whereas on other continents it will only have doubled (see Annex III: demographic change in Africa); at this rate, it is been estimated 20/ that to meet the housing requirements of African city dwellers some 36 million additional housing units will have to be built by the year 2000 and 8 million more will have to be improved, representing an investment of 120 million United States dollars. Other studies 21/ indicate that to meet the same housing needs it will be necessary to invest from 5.9 to 6.5 per cent of city dwellers' total income in the housing sector (these cost estimates do not include the price of the land or the related road and service networks.

19/ E/ECA/HUS/6/Add.2, p.10.
20/ See reference 5, p.5.
21/ E/ECA/HUS/1, p.7.

67. According to a paper published by a research centre that specializes in the creation of affordable housing in Africa, 22/ a minimum of 500 French Francs must be spent on every square metre, irrespective of the housing policies and means of production employed, if one is to have hi h-quality housing; this seems an enormous sum compared with the means of low income earners.

68. To produce 5.2 to 10 housing units per 1000 inhabitants per year (to satisfy the African countries' housing needs as referred to above), the Unit3d Nations has recommended investing at least 5 per cent of gross national product in the housing sector instead of the 2 per cent that many African countries actually do invest (see Annex V: IPI formula).

69. Analysis of this situation of housing for the masses as presented in the proceding pages has given rise to a number of guidelines and indicators for promoting co-operative housing, self-help housing and other forms of public participation in African countries.

GUIDELINES AND INDICATORS FOR PROMOTING CO-OPERATIVE AND SELF-HELP HOUSING AND OTHER FORMS OF PUBLIC PARTICIPATION

A. General context

70. In order to promote co-operative and self-help housing and other forms of public participation, African States need to create a general setting favouring the incorporation of such projects into the urban development process in accordance with national housing policy. There is a need for central and local permanent bodies (governmental, volunteer associations etc.) to take charge of the management of such projects and deal with the various legal, administrative and technical aspects.

71. The notions of co-operative housing and self-help housing need to be modified to suit the cultural and socio-economic conditions prevailing in African countries; it would be a mistake to seek to import successful formulas wholesale from other parts of the world to deal with Africa's housing problems.

72. The development of co-operative housing needs a point of departure, such as the creation of a municipal housing co-operative funded by the public authorities. Housing co-operatives could also be set up on a triangular base - State/employer/workforce - if a tax, legal and administrative system was set up to defend the interests of each of the parties; this would in essence amount to an improvement of a system which already exists in many African countries, under which the State and employers do provide financial support, however modest, for workers' housing.

B. Training, instruction and technical assistance

73. Africa as a whole does have centres that offer training in the construction of self-help housing, but there are very few concerned with co-operative housing. Training must be encouraged because the lack of competent staff is one of the principal reasons for the failure of housing co-operatives in Africa even though the traditional foundations

22/ See reference 4, p.7.

of African societies would favour the growth of co-operatives.

74. Training and instruction should be given first to civil servants, co-operative leaders and co-operative members who can in turn train other people and thus produce a critical mass of trained operatives. If there are enough participants, instruction and training can be given on the spot in the country. Training programmes will be drawn up in accordance with the need to develop co-operative and self-help housing in different countries, and will extend to such matters as legal and technical questions as well as project management.

75. Staff must be trained to deal with administrative procedure at the housing co-operative level: drawing up provisional statutes for legalizing co-operatives, providing advice and assistance on taxation matters, and miscellaneous administrative procedures (for example the standardization of applications to facilitate loans to co-operative members) etc.

76. The specialized project management staff will be concerned with the overall co-ordination of work, arranging supplies of building materials, organizing the labour force, and co-ordinating between the institutions funding projects and the building contractors.

77. The technical side of the training will cover architecture and engineering (preparation of specifications and quantity estimates, simple drainage techniques, etc.) and the use of local materials in housing construction projects for low-income owners.

78. In the case of assisted self-build schemes, the technical training will be more and whose ability to respond flexibly to the demand from low-income owners makes this sector of housing construction an efficient one. Experience has shown that self-build construction schemes run according to standard plans drawn up by the public authorities fall short of expectations; people agree to such schemes so as to secure the right to equipment of the plots they occupy, and in general the standard building plans are ignored.

C. Preferential allocation of land

79. The preferential allocation of plots which low-income owners can afford is an important factor in the development of co-operative and self-help housing schemes. African countries need to establish administrative, legal and taxation systems which will permit such preferential allocation in order to foster the work of housing co-operatives and the execution of schemes of this kind.

80. Such measures will permit the ownership by low-income earners of the plots which they occupy. The resulting security of tenure will encourage personal initiative and offer a safeguard to funding organizations and institutions which will probably invest more readily in the construction of co-operative and self-help housing.

D. Building codes and regulations

81. The introduction of building codes and regulations will help to ensure satisfactory quality (durability for example) in the housing constructed. This will encourage landing by funding institutions in as much as they will be able to apply technical standards in accordance with established procedures as a safeguard for their investment: "no trust,

hence no capital, hence no quality, hence no confidence, hence no capital,..." 23/

82. Building standards should be kept in line with socio-economic conditions in each individual country and encourage the use of local materials and building technologies compatible with the skills of locally available labour.

83. There are two approaches to the question of building codes and regulations: functional and descriptive. 24/

84. The functional approach specifies the use of specific building materials (fabric, facing, finishing) to ensure that buildings are suited to their environment (rainfall, sunshine, wind etc.). The descriptive approach stipulates the technical performances required of materials and the conditions under which they are to be used.

85. Although the functional approach is more suitable for research (for the development of new materials and technology) and the technical approach for building contractors, the two are complementary and help to ensure the quality of the housing constructed.

E. Promotion of local building materials

86. The use and promotion of local building materials can yield significant reductions in building costs if materials are produced in sufficient quantity. If they are, this will directly benefit the building of co-operative and self-help housing and other forms of public participation. African countries should create a climate generally conducive to the use and promotion of local building materials by means of administrative, legal and taxation measures and the development of building-materials-manufacturing industries.

87. The production of building materials includes the following: building materials, technical equipment, labour and know-how. The manufactured product is the more local if the factors of production are local.

88. Recent experience in African countries indicates an appreciable reduction in building costs thanks to use of local materials; according to whether one uses the modern or informal channels for the creation of housing, the savings can amount to 8 per cent or 21 per cent on the cost of the fabric, or 5 per cent and 10 per cent of the total cost of building. 25/

89. The use of local building materials also makes it possible to create housing that is architecturally better suited to the environment.

F. Funding for co-operative and self-help housing

90. Traditional funding systems need to be improved and better suited to the socio-economic circumstances of low-income earners. Other sources of funds also need to be found within the internal resources of each country.

91. Accordingly, the resources available to institutions that finance housing need to be increased so that they can grant several loans at once, such institutions must have substantial fixed capital since loans granted for housing purposes are generally of long maturity.

23/ Ibid.
24/ Ibid, p.21.
25/ See reference 2.

92. Bearing in mind the financial limitations of low-income earners, steps should also be taken to permit early repayment of the loans granted (for example, by lowering interest rates on loans).

93. It is important to encourage saving by co-operative members themselves; however small the sums involved, they will indicate a willingness to acquire housing and be an asset in negotiating loans with funding organizations. African countries should take steps to encourage the establishment of credit co-operatives and private investment in co-operative and self-help housing projects.

94. Housing co-operatives may be able to fund themselves by diversifying their activities into other sectors such as the manufacture of building materials for sale, and the provision of miscellaneous services to the public.

95. One recent and interesting trend in the funding of co-operative housing in African countries has been the formation of associations linking housing co-operatives in the industrialized and developing countries, these co-operatives then pool their resources for use in housing schemes in the various countries concerned.

C. Popular participation

96. Popular participation should be a basic feature of housing policies in Africa. As a corrective against the shortage of resources for housing construction in African countries, popular participation provides a means of mobilizing the unexploited human resources of the low-income earners who make up the majority of the urban population in Africa.

97. What is needed is a general atmosphere conducive to popular participation in the creation of co-operative and self-help housing. This can be brought about by administrative and legal measures. Popular participation can be brought about through public information on housing activities and a dialogue between the local authorities and population as part of the housing planning and construction process.

98. Public instruction on housing activities will not be of the traditional kind but will involve the practical development of people's knowledge the rudiments of building techniques (use of a level and plumb line, etc.), plans and reading simple construction drawings, etc.), so as to enhance the contribution they can make to housing construction.

99. Dialogue and co-operation between the public authorities and local people should make both sides aware of the extent of the housing problem and encourage their effective involvement in the search for different ways of dealing with it.

CONCLUSION

100. This document has not attempted to consider all the problems associated with guidelines and indicators for the promotion of co-operative and self-help housing and other forms of public participation. These are problems which have been addressed at length in many different papers.

101. It is the approach to the problem rather than the substance of the recommendations which we would regard as interesting. We propose a dynamic approach, stressing the need

to encourage housing of this kind so that African countries can break out of the formal framework of recommendations and acquire the ways and means of effectively promoting co-operative housing, self-help housing and other forms of public participation.

Annex I

Distribution of national income

Region	Poorest 20 per cent	Poor 40 per cent	Modestly Well-off 20 per cent	Rich 15 per cent	Very Rich 5 per cent
		P O P U L A T I O N			
Asia	5,3	22,8	18,8	27.6	25.5
Africa	5,6	16,5	15,3	27,8	34,8
Latin America	4,3	19,2	19,4	24,8	32,8

Source : Annales de l'institut technique du bâtiment et des travaux publics (Paris, SARL LE BATIMENT) No. 386 (Septembre 1980), p.68.

Annex II

Average yearly urban growth
(average yearly rate over the previous five years)

	1950	1980	2000	2025
World	3,2	2,7	2,6	1,8
Africa	4,3	5,3	4,5	3,0
Latin America	4,6	3,6	2,5	1,8
North America	2,7	1,4	1,1	0,6
East Asia	5,1	2,9	2,7	1,4
South Asia	3,1	3,9	3,9	2,3
Europe	1,6	1,1	0,7	0,3
Oceania	3,1	2,1	1,5	0,8
USSR	3,9	2,0	1,3	0,9

Source : United Nations, Demographic indicators of countries : Estimates and projections as assessed in 1980 (New York, 1982), p.39.

Total population and urban population (
urban population as a percentage of the

Region	1960		
	Total pop.	Urban pop. (%)	Total pop.
Africa	258 108 (13)	33 680	333 06 (21)
East Africa	75 693	5 478 (7)	100 22
Central Africa	34 940	6 555 (18)	42 04
North Africa	65 133	19 514 (30)	83 02
Southern Africa	1,091	55 (2)	2 11
West Africa	80 651	10 838 (13)	105 652

Source : derived from Demographic handbook f

ulation growth in Africa

(ECA member States)

housands of inhabitants) and
total

1970		1980		1990		2000	
	Urban pop. (%)	Total pop.	Urban pop. (%)	Total pop.	Urban pop. (%)	Total pop.	Urban pop. (%)
9	70 311 (21)	445 497	120 701 (27)	606 127	205 876 (34)	[illegible]	337 827 (41)
7	19 423 (10)	136 133	21 148 (15)	189 071	41 834 (22)	266 563	77 789 (29)
7	10 231 (25)	[illegible]	18 769 (36)	71 904	31 644 (44)	96 072	50 187 (52)
9	30 706 (37)	[illegible]	47 637 (44)	143 759	73 787 (51)	[illegible]	187 041 (58)
4	123 (6)	2 805	309 (11)	3 782	680 (18)	5 156	1 317 (25)
2	18 499 (17)	143 796	32 839 (23)	197 610	57 930 (29)	275 002	100 691 (37)

for Africa, 1982 (UNECA) (forthcoming)

Annex III

Per capita growth in gross domestic product (GDP)
(US dollars)

(ECA member States)

	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1983
Africa	138	153	234	257	283	265
North Africa	199	225	275	321	406	396
West Africa	120	137	178	203	205	172
Central Africa	130	120	131	125	121	119
East Africa	96	109	131	127	123	118

Source : ECA Statistics Division, national accounts printouts.

Investment-production-income (IPI) formula
Relation between the proportion of GDP invested annually in the housing sector, the number of housing units built and the income of the households needing housing

$$Pih = \frac{ha \times Oc \times f}{1000}$$

Where

Pih = percentage of GDP invested in housing

ha = number of housing units built annually per 1000 population

Oc = average number of occupants per housing unit

$$f = \frac{\text{cost of land development and construction}}{\text{average annual income of households needing housing}}$$

Source: United Nations Economic Commission for Africa, Human settlements in Africa, the role of housing and building (Addis Ababa, 1976) p.145.

Note: The aim of this annex is not to set forth a complicated calculation but to demonstrate the existence of a direct relation between the number of housing units built yearly per 1000 population and the extent of investment in the housing sector.

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UNITED NATIONS

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL

ECONOMIC COMMISSION FOR AFRICA

Third Meeting of the ECA Joint Intergovernmental Regional Committee on Human Settlements and Environment

Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, 22-26 July 1985

LC/NAIROBI.

REPORT OF THE MEETING OF THE GROUP OF EXPERTS ON GUIDELINES AND INDICATORS FOR THE PREPARATION OF NATIONAL MODELS FOR INTEGRATED HUMAN SETTLEMENTS AND NATIONAL SOCIO-ECONOMIC PLANNING

ADDIS ABABA, 10-14 JUNE 1985

I. ORGANIZATION OF THE MEETING

Date and venue

1. The Group of Experts on Guidelines and Indicators for the Preparation of National Models for Integrated Human Settlements and National Socio-Economic Planning met in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, from 10 to 14 June 1985.

Attendance

2. Experts from the following countries attended: Burkina Faso, Ivory Coast, France, Guinea, Madagascar, Senegal and Tunisia. A representative of the United Nations Centre for Human Settlements also attended the meeting.

Election of officers (agenda item 1)

3. The following officers were elected:

Chairman: Mrs. Majet Khantouche, Director-General of Land Development (Tunisia)

Rapporteur: Mr. Alioune Badiane, Chief, DFGPA, PNAT Project, State Secretariat for Decentralization (Senegal)

Opening of the Meeting (agenda item 2)

4. In his opening statement, the representative of the Executive Secretary of the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) welcomed participants, saying that a sound human settlements policy should be a decisive factor in the improvement of living conditions for the general public.

5. He reminded the meeting of the stipulations in the Lagos Plan of Action regarding town and village planning and the decisions taken by the Joint Intergovernmental Regional Committee on Human Settlements and the Environment, calling on African States to devote the utmost attention to the development of their land resources and determine ways and means of facilitating land development in the context of economic planning.

6. Although action under the Lagos Plan had resulted in the introduction of structures which would help to improve living standards for the general public, it was none the less a fact that the general trend in human settlements, towards depopulation in the countryside as people moved to urban areas, declining agricultural output, hypertrophy in national capitals and decline in smaller centres and towns of medium size, had changed very little in recent decades.

7. The structure of human settlements in Africa revealed a growing polarization of economic life between the urban and rural sectors. There was no mutually advantageous network of production and exchange to permit the integrated development of the two sectors. Each African country accordingly needed to lay down a consistent and comprehensive human settlements policy as part of its national plans for economic and social development, and this would also add a spatial dimension to those plans. The aim of such a policy would be the introduction of an integrated economy guaranteeing uniform development, whose currents would reach into all geographical areas of the country.

8. He went on to outline the economic and social crisis in Africa and its repercussions on the growth of human settlements. Population growth was resulting in accelerated rural exodus, the tentacular development of towns and overpopulation in fertile rural areas which was threatening to aggravate the food crisis. The development of urban fabric required careful use of geographical areas to derive maximum benefit from the land available. The priorities in human settlements policy should be urban management and the development of infrastructure, public amenities and housing.

9. Concluding, he commented that the future of the African continent could not be in keeping with the goals of the Lagos Plan of Action unless the region devoted itself to a painstaking appraisal of the problems caused by structural and geographical imbalances in the human settlements sector. He hoped the meeting would be able to recommend specific action to address that problem.

Adoption of the agenda and programme of work (agenda item 3)

10. After some discussion the meeting, in view of the absence of certain experts, made changes to the proposed programme of work and adopted the following agenda:

1. Election of officers
2. Opening of the meeting
3. Adoption of the Agenda and Programme of Work
4. Subregional and regional strategies and programmes for the development of human settlements in Africa: Preparation and national application
5. Integrating land-development and national economic and social development plans: methods and techniques suitable for the African geo-economic context
6. Importance and role of rural human settlements in national plans for economic and social development
7. National human settlement planning methods and techniques in Africa
8. Presentations on Guinea's and Madagascar's experience relating to the subject of the meeting
9. Integrated planning of human settlements and national socio-economic development: guidelines and indicators for the preparation of national models
10. Other matters
11. Adoption of the report and closure of the meeting.

II. ACCOUNT OF PROCEEDINGS

Subregional and regional strategies and programmes for the development of human settlements in Africa: preparation and national application (agenda item 4)

(a) Introduction

11. Introducing this paper, Mr. Samson of the Bureau Central d'Etudes d'Outremer-Société d'ingénierie (BCEOM) in Paris, said there was a strong case in the second half of the twentieth century, as Africa was undergoing a demographic revolution accompanied by the largest migratory movements ever seen, for describing spatial planning within the context of long-term economic plans as a major item of concern to States.

12. It was already possible to get a rough idea of the population equilibrium level for Africa as a whole that could result from the demographic changes now in progress. It was more difficult, however, to predict and direct population distribution in different areas, to discover what prompted migration and to make arrangements for accommodating the new arrivals.

13. As he saw it, the problem was chiefly one of working out where people could be employed and at what. Jobs were the key to where people lived, particularly directly productive jobs since they not only produced the only 'saleable' wealth but were also multipliers of jobs (secondary employment at various levels). At the current stage of African development, productive rural jobs were the greatest multipliers of employment.

14. The way to positive action could therefore be opened if governments would agree to base their human settlements policies on cohesive economic regions, with due regard for their potential for productive activity and employment; to pursue stimulating rather than restrictive strategies; and to assign responsibility to local and regional communities, for they could have an appreciable effect on overall development only if they could engage in sound management and take initiatives at the local level.

(b) Discussion

15. A number of issues were raised after this introduction. Participants spoke on the notions of population growth, demographic change, final population and direct and indirect employment in the urban sector. A number of comments were also made on Mr. Samson's paper, which may be summarized as follows:

(i) It took a less than vigorous approach to the relation between the active population and migration;

(ii) Account needed to be taken of the African context and its underlying logic, expanding the concept of an economic region to encompass the physical implications of land development and work towards homogeneous regions;

(iii) Explanations were offered of why people migrated; this was said to be more a question of survival than of looking for jobs;

(iv) The effects of delay in land development vis-à-vis plans for economic and social development needed to be studied;

(v) Environmental problems and natural resources questions needed to be taken into account in economic development plans.

16. In reply to the questions raised, Mr. Samson elaborated on the notion of population growth and its relation to spatial planning. He also stressed that institutional structures were not always consistent with the logic of development. He likewise commented that "vertical" administration was hardly helpful in reducing regional differences.

Integrating land-development and national economic and social development plans: methods and techniques suitable for the African geo-economic context (agenda item 5)

(a) Introduction

17. Introducing his paper, Mr. Alioune Badiane (Senegal) emphasized that the subject he had chosen was a complicated one for a number of reasons, including the imperfect understanding of the concepts of economic and social planning and of land development; the physical and time scales used in both designing and executing plans; and the targets set, meaning the national planning document and national economic and social development plans.

18. Attempts to introduce some consistency into or integrate the two types of plan were made more difficult by the fact that newly independent African States faced thorny problems. In the case of economic and social development plans they had to define a macro-economic setting and lacked reliable statistics; in the case of land development, they had to decide exactly what was wanted and clarify the concept, but had insufficient knowledge of their resources, potential and major constraints, and were short of political backing.

19. The national planning document should provide the framework and direction for national economic and social development plans, and should accordingly extend over 20 to 25 years. It provided an overall framework for guidance and combined efforts to improve the way people related to their environment and the resources in their areas. In their most obvious forms such relations were chiefly economic.

20. Land development had long been regarded as a vital tool for use in the pursuit of social equity and better-balanced development, but it should no longer be confined to corrective action. It had an important role to play in the mobilization of unequally distributed resources to promote optimum growth and the balanced development of different regions and different sectors of the population. That was not to imply, however, that the national planning document should supplant national plans for economic and social development.

21. Land development offered the chance to define a consistent scenario allowing for the resources and constraints which alone could bring about a social and physical redistribution of the fruits of growth. Efforts to evolve a long-term outline for economic and social development suggested three types of policy that should apply to land development:

(i) Developing the land in the service of growth;

(ii) Developing the land to reduce regional disparities;

(iii) Developing the land so as to make rational use of resources, with voluntary development of physical space.

22. Clearly, any effective economic and social planning policy must rely on sound knowledge of the physical and human resources available and the way in which they were being used. This meant that the demographic factor (population growth and distribution) had to be taken into account, together with the decisive role of integrated natural resources management in the development planning process. As it provided the means to control such information, land development could play its assigned part in cohesive, integrated socio-economic and spatial planning.

23. Taking Senegal as an example, he said that the national planning document was drawn up in two stages: first an appraisal of the situation, then actual drafting. The first phase, which had just come to an end with the publication of the outline, fell into four steps: identifying and assembling information; analysis; diagnosis; and linning out the outline.

24. Land development encompassed physical follow-up activities such as monitoring population concentrations and efforts to make sensible use of space and protect the environment; socio-economic planning, on the other hand, should include monitoring of project or programme execution, the establishment performance indicators and the verification of economic performance.

25. Combined activities of the two sorts should make it possible to optimise the socio-economic development potential of each region in the light of its natural propeensities, potential and constraints.

26. The cohesiveness, economic effectiveness, socio-political acceptability and suitability of plans would depend on the ability of the institutions concerned to establish a framework for co-operation within a medium- and long-term scenario, which was the only way to ensure that their activities were efficient and compatible.

(d) Discussion

27. Participants had the opportunity to make contributions on this topic in the discussion that followed. The ressources employed in land development plans, the lack of project-monitoring structures, the shortage of technical skills, the absence of the political will to reassert the importance of land development, and how to control foreign technical assistance earmarked for land-management issues where the main points raised. It was suggested that land development studies and projects should be carried out in close collaboration with the general public so as to make better provision for their needs.

Importance and role of rural human settlements in national plans for economic and social development (agenda item 6)

(a) Introduction

28. This item was introduced by Mr. Fall (Senegal) who, before embarking on the substance of his topic, made two general comments. The first related to the economic history of Africa, which had been marked by the creation of micro-States from previously fairly homogeneous wholes. As a result, the development models drawn up as African States became independent were coloured by political orientations which had divided Africa into two groups.

29. From the purely economic point of view, however, the distinction was merely formal and both groups had used their own resources in the pursuit of growth. Unfortunately, the economic systems they had established and deteriorating terms of trade had prevented them from reaching their objectives and they had been unable to create import substitution industries. The gap had been filled by asking for aid and assistance, and this had led Africa into a crisis whose repercussions now affected all sectors, human settlements included. In spite of Africa's dependence on the developed countries, the gulf between the two was constantly growing. That dependence could now be seen as the reason for the failure of all African economic and social structures concerned with human settlements.

30. His second comment related to the purely historical context in which human settlements in Africa had grown up. It was important to notice the absence of objective functions due to deliberate choices by the colonists. The colonial towns had satisfied the military and also the economic and commercial requirements of the day, but had been intended to meet the needs of the metropolis. At independence some slight progress had been made, but most human settlements had been of only slight standing if any.

31. Different countries had then evolved different strategies. Senegal, which in addition to a dozen large cities with between 50 and 100,000 inhabitants had an extensive network of secondary towns and rural agglomerations, had for decades been faced with serious imbalances, the prolongation of what Van Chi Boumardel called "The serviceable and the peripheral Senegal", with grave consequences in both rural and urban areas.

32. To be rid of this problem Senegal had tried to introduce a decentralized (sectoral and regional) planning system and in 1972 had adopted a spatial policy including territorial reform. Despite these measures, the rural human settlements where most Senegalese lived remained a source of concern. In 1961, 77 per cent of the total population had lived in agglomerations of less than 10,000 inhabitants; in 1971 the proportion had fallen to 70 per cent, and in 1980 was no higher than 32 per cent. This was due to a number of factors, including efforts to procure rapid growth which tended to relegate the spatial and social dimension to the sidelines; the inappropriateness of development models; and finally, fresh thinking on the subject which was resulting in limits on the development of rural human settlements.

(b) Discussion

33. Mr. Fall's presentation stimulated many questions, principally on project funding by international bodies whose new approach to human settlements seemed to be to develop the primary city, to the detriment of the rest of the country, until the growth attained an absolute value that could be injected into the countryside. Under present circumstances, however, scattering the little growth that only the primary cities were producing was out of the question. Participants felt that such an approach was dangerous in that it disparaged the past efforts by the rural areas which had made the development of primary cities possible. It was good to support the primary city, but the city's position vis-à-vis rural areas also needed to be reconsidered. International financiers did not regard such dispersion of funds as desirable in present circumstances. This showed a disregard for the countryside which, in the case of Senegal, some development structures had impoverished. In going to the aid of the primary city, people were rejecting

the countryside. The officials responsible must reconsider their chosen course, which was likely to prolong existing imbalances.

34. Other participants offered definitions of rural human settlements. According to the first, rural human settlements were settlements with few inhabitants that played no political or administrative role, with a very limited sphere of impact (2 kms) and, devoted essentially to primary activities. A second definition proposed was that rural human settlements should provide a decent setting and proper facilities and communications so as to keep people where they were to take part in agricultural activities.

35. Mr. Fall made it plain that he had deliberately omitted to give a precise definition since the existing definitions, which depended on a single criterion or function, were generally inadequate. He had therefore decided to list functions and roles and leave it to the experts to consider whether a definition was desirable. The participants finally chose to confine themselves to analysing the concept involved.

36. At the close of the discussion, Mr. Fall suggested laying emphasis, as part of the efforts to revitalise rural human settlements, on agricultural development, calling on people to produce; increasing the saleability of their produce; setting up local planning bodies; and accenting communications problems. That, he said, would permit the introduction of decentralization and deconcentration policies that could help the development of rural human settlements.

37. Finally, emphasis was placed on the need to make due provision for the farming sector in national accounting, and it was commented that African national accounts assigned too many costs to agriculture.

National methods and techniques for the planning of human settlement in Africa: Burkina Faso's experience (agenda item 7)

(a) Introduction

38. Introducing this paper, Mr. Guiebo said that after the revolution of 4 August 1983, Burkina Faso was now engaged in an original experiment in the planning of human settlements.

39. The experiment was based on three principles:

(i) Beginning with the broad masses in the design, execution and monitoring of programmes for developing human and rural settlements,

(ii) Bringing about a change in attitudes to the concept of human settlements to bring them into line with the socio-economic and political circumstances of Burkina Faso

(iii) Setting up an autonomous funding mechanism that could not only fund the development of urban and rural settlements but also create a rolling fund so that similar operations could be repeated in other areas.

40. The principles had been based on the following observations:

(i) Most of the regimes that had held power in Burkina Faso before the revolution had been unable to apply the measures and decisions they had taken, having never relied on the initiative and creative spirit of the people;

(ii) Human settlements programmes normally required external funding that was hard to obtain and costly, and hence they did not in most cases reach their target populations.

41. The Government of Burkina Faso had launched the popular development programme, a set of sectoral investment programmes at the provincial and national level which was intended to improve material living conditions for the people in the spheres of food, water, health, housing and education.

42. In this specific sphere of housing, energetic measures had been taken to cope with the problem of housing facilities and infrastructure. Participants should know that Burkina Faso was a country with a population of almost 7 million, living off a backward rural economy which employed more than 90 per cent of them but could not make the country self sufficient. The result was heavy population movement towards the cities, particularly the capital where more than 45 per cent of the urban population was concentrated. The lack of housing and land suitable for building had prompted the migrants to settle haphazardly in the area around the city, where they lived in often lamentable conditions.

43. Accordingly, the Government had decided to introduce reasonable rents, to carry out large-scale mass-plot-development schemes in the squatter areas, to promote the construction of public housing on a large scale and to introduce an independent financing mechanism to provide funds for human settlements. These steps, based on

the three principles referred to earlier, had been accompanied by the creation of political and technical structures (Comité de défense de la revolution and Comité de coordination du programme populaire de développement) to monitor and control the execution of the programme.

44. All these activities had been carried out with popular participation at all levels. The results during the second quarter of 1985 had been: construction of 500 units of public housing by the people themselves within a year, using local materials whose exploitation was encouraged; the construction of 500 units of public housing (out of a planned 1,150) by a State building society using local materials and local technical skills (sub-contractors); the establishment, using progressive development methods, of almost 20,000 lots (out of 60,000 planned) and creation of a democratic structure for allocating them the construction of amenities (schools, dispensaries etc.) by the people themselves, and the finalization of a system by which the purchase of housing plots depended on household income. The designated holder of a plot made a down payment of only 25,000 CFA francs over a period of three to four months, with the balance (the price per square meter was fixed at 300 CFA francs) payable over a period of three to five years; the down payments were used to set up a rolling fund to finance urban development operations. Almost 200 million CFA francs had been mobilized for that purpose.

45. Despite the absence of a nation-wide plan for land development, the programmes were all being carried out within the consistent framework of a startegic development scheme.

46. Concluding, Mr. Guiebo stressed that all planning served the interest of a class policy; human settlements planning in Burkina Faso was for the benefit of the people and relied principally on the initiative and effective mobilization of the population at large. Experience with the popular development programme clearly showed that the National Revolutionary Council was on the right track. The three principles thus laid down should therefore be taken into consideration in the planning of the human settlements.

(b) Discussion

47. In view of its originality, Mr. Guiebo's presentation prompted a great many questions seeking to find parallels between Burkina Faso's experience and that of other African countries. The first questions related to the notion of land ownership; the State is leasing of housing free of charge, the facilities provided on lots sold at 25,000 CFA francs; tenant status; the land register situation; and the problem of regional land development.

48. The representative of Guinea described his country's experience, which was similar to that of Burkina Faso. Despite the existence of political will, however, account had to be taken not only of the capacity of the broad masses and of the technicians but also of the ability of the reactionary classes whose interests were opposed to those of the public at large to abstruct progress, and of external demobilizing influences.

49. Other participants spoke of their countries' experiences with housing, the existence of city master plans, the training of human settlements technicians (city planners, developers, geometers and others), the details of construction

operations (housing stocks, building societies), land speculation and their experience with unserviced plots. Another series of questions related to urban management by the public authorities, rates of growth and population displacement.

50. In reply to all these questions Mr. Guiebo remarked that ordinance 84 050 CNR governed the way land and land ownership were organized. The State had assigned to the Committee for the Defence of the Revolution responsibility for all land measures. Land ownership deeds had been abolished and replaced by titles to "enjoyment", housing was being made available free of charge only for a transitional period of one year, to give the State time to discover the identity of the real property owners. Foreigners and bodies corporate would continue to pay but the money would be turned over to the State for use in financing productive projects. The facilities provided on lots were extremely scanty in view of the price asked (25,000 CFA francs) but making the plots more liable-on was expected to be a gradual process with active public participation. A title to "enjoyment" could be sold once the plot had been developed, but could not be transferred before building had taken place; long ground leases applied only to land for commercial and industrial use. The land register was still fairly sketchy but a project currently under consideration was expected to provide a means of dealing with the problems in Ouagadougou and Bobo-Dioulasso. He agreed with the remarks made by the representative of Guinea but pointed out that the future of the revolution was a matter of concern to the revolutionaries and the Burkinabè people and that for the moment the broad masses supported the established policy of urban growth and development. The rural environment was not a priority at the moment since they were not too many problems in the countryside. Emphasis in the country was being laid on the exploitation of land and livestock production. As for city master plans, the plan for Ouagadougou had already been drawn up by a Dutch research bureau and Burkinabè nationals; two secondary centres a year would also be provided with strategic development outlines. Burkina had experimented with a serviced-site policy but found it too expensive (250,000 CFA francs per plot) to be developed. A working group was continuing with the preparation of the lands register and a computerized file was being established. As regards technical training, the country had no school for training town planners. In addition to university graduates trained in Europe, technicians such as geometers were trained at Dakar (ENSUT), and town planners in Togo (EAMAU). Finally, the People's Bank dealt only with people earning less than 100,000 CFA francs per month.

Policies applied in Guinea for land development (agenda item 8)

(a) Introduction

51. Mr. Kourouma, representing Guinea, began by saying that in recent years the international community had been concerned with the developing countries' major problems: property, famine and rural exodus. One of the surest ways of getting out of their increasingly alarming situation was to combine human settlements planning with the planning of national socio-economic development in order to use very limited national resources effectively in meeting needs as vast as they were varied. Yet many African Governments still had only a theoretical grasp of the concept of "global and nodal planning".

52. Guinea was not above such critisism. Progress had recently been made, however, with the creation of a Ministry of Land Development. As the planning tools of this new institution were being defined and created, it was appropriate to take stock of the situation in order to avoid past mistakes.

53. It had been recognized in Guinea that human settlements planning had never been integrated with socio-economic development planning; the different sectors of human settlements had developed with no central control, and human settlements planning and development had hitherto been a spin-off from socio-economic development.

54. Since the creation of the Second Republic on 3 April 1984 it seemed that a step had been made towards a comprehensive understanding of the planning concept. A ministry-level institution had been set up to deal with land development; all existing measures that favoured the development of human settlements had been maintained measures that hindered such development had been lifted (the barriers between prefectoral districts which hampered the circulation of people and goods had been removed, and the compulsory production standards imposed on peasants had been abolished); new steps had been taken (customs charges on the most important imported building materials had been reduced by 50 per cent, private initiative in the housing sector had been encouraged; rigioons financial procedures in project management were being softened a brigade had been established to fight brush fires; and standard prices for agricultural produce had been raised), finally, a national recovery plan had been drawn up in which human settlements ranked second after agriculture.

55. In sum, Guinea was basing its hopes on the creation of the Ministry for Land Development. In years to come the new ministry should enable the country to put forward a consistent set of long-term objectives to guide the different parties involved in socio-economic and spatial development and ensure a modicum of cohesion in their activities.

(b) Discussion

56. Following this presentation, clarification was sought on the following points:

(i) Why did the city of Conakry account for only 15 per cent of the urban population when some African capitals accounted for up to 50 per cent?

(ii) In view of Guinea's past experience, which had discouraged popular participation, what steps had been taken by the new regime to secure public participation in the national recovery effort?

(iii) In terms of their general thrust, some ideas put forward under the First Republic had not been bad. Had the country's failure to act upon them being due to the methods employed?

(iv) Given the changes in development orientation since the big change-over in April 1984, what was now happening in Guinea and what results had been obtained?

57. Replying, Mr. Kourouma said that he had given a statement of fact. It was not yet possible to explain the phenomenon since no study of the matter had yet been undertaken. Under the First Republic popular enthusiasm had come up against external constraints (international preasure) and internal ones (political deception). With the fall of the old regime some enthusiasm had again been felt and the recovery plan introduced to permit the development of all economic sectors had received the assent of the general public, who could be relied on to provide effective support. Most of the ideas advanced under the old régime had been maintained, but the options were different: socialism under the First Republic and liberalism under the Second. The approaches taken to attain fixed objectives were, therefore, necessarily different. The change-over had taken place only a year before and there were no tangible results as yet, but institutional machinery had been set up to attain the country's defined objectives. Finally, he explained that human settlements development in Guinea had been a sectoral process. That was why he had not spoken of human settlements planning, rather, he had indicated the share of investment devoted to each sectoral component. What Guinea had been lacking in this area, in fact, had been integrated development of the different components of human settlements.

Land development and human settlements in Madagascar (agenda item 3)

(a) Introduction

58. The representative of Madagascar, Mr. Raveloarison, reminded the meeting of the aims and principles of land development as part of the development process. His own country's experiments with large development zones had not brought about any noteworthy improvement in the lives of the peasants and workers. Social investment had been left aside, with grave consequences for the ultimate economic value of projects. The same had been true in the industrial or urban sphere. Human settlements had been springing up spontaneously. Whether in villages or towns, no qualitative improvement had resulted directly from development projects.

59. The chief concern of the groups providing financial support for the country's efforts had been to extract maximum economic benefit from projects. In view of the circumstances, such projects had not always attained their set objectives.

60 The decentralized communities (the grass roots Fokonolana) were increasingly aware of the situation and were mobilizing to find funds and manage their human settlements. They remained very short of funds, however, and were not even managing to cope with their priority tasks (road networks and drainage). This was principally owing to the inoperative system for obtaining resources, bad planning in the management and allocation of resources, a shortage of specialists on urban matters and lack of control over the land.

61. Current urban development projects were seeking to deal with these problems in the first instance. But in view of their national importance, the establishment of a national land-management institution integrated with the planning institution was on the agenda.

(b) Discussion

62. This presentation aroused definite interest in all participants, who raised a number of questions about Madagascar's experiences, including:

- Was Madagascar facing the same threats as the countries of West Africa (population growth, desertification, food shortages and problems in rural areas) and if so, how were they being dealt with?
- Did Madagascar have problems with communications?
- Were there internal methods of mobilizing funds for human settlements?
- How had land tenure problems been dealt with?
- How were the decentralized communities tackling the creation of infrastructure?
- How was land development being integrated with economic and social development?
- What were the communes' sources of revenue?
- How had administrative and in particular technical responsibility been transferred to the decentralized communities?
- What links were there between urban growth and industrialization?

63. Replying to these questions, the representative of Madagascar said that despite the wide variety of physical conditions in Madagascar desertification was not a threat. There were, however, some very isolated areas and districts that were self-sufficient in food while others were not. Because of communication difficulties, the rich regions had done very little to stimulate development in the deprived areas, and this was the reason for the present need to import rice. It was intended that the large rice-growing areas now being developed should resolve that problem. The main road arteries were polarized along the centre of the country and were in poor condition, some being impassable at any time of year. The internal system used to mobilize funds was the recovery and recycling of investment money. No major land reform had been tried since independence. The decentralized communities were just beginning to set about the creation of infrastructure, and were doing so by raising taxes and surtaxes on the development of new areas to habitable standards. Projects were managed centrally (Ministry of Public Works). The Malagasy Ministry of the Interior and the decentralized communities were intended gradually to take over the task of planning.

National models for the integrated planning of human settlements and national socio-economic development: Tunisia (agenda item 9)

(a) Introduction

64. The representative of Tunisia, Mrs. Najet Khantouche, said in her presentation that after attaining independence Tunisia had undergone remarkable development and had seen important changes due in part to population growth, economic changes and altering life styles. These transformations had had consequences for the organization of Tunisian space.

65. The objectives and strategy of the Schéma National d'Aménagement du Territoire (National Planning Outline) (SNAT) sought in the long term the optimal development of Tunisia's full potential and the establishment of a regional balance. That implied a redistribution of public investment between the areas of concentration and the stagnating regions. The objectives sought were the following:

- integrating Tunisia's regions through the creation of infrastructure and the re-balancing of the urban network in order to equalize the benefits available;

- protecting threatened natural resources by protection measures,

- spatial orientation of economic options through encouragement and guidance;

- regional division based on the definition of the development area, the building block of SNAT and a planning framework permitting the development of a diversified internal economy, as a homogeneous whole containing at least one large town to play the role of regional metropolis;

- establishment of large urban foci with communal amenities and attractive infrastructure that could rapidly attain a dimensional threshold generating external economies and offering opportunities for cumulative development. Ten development foci had been selected, with priority going to the promotion of the regional foci in the north-west, mid-west and south-west of Tunisia through the launching of genuine special development plans,

- reinforcement of principal communications and development arteries so as to provide priority service to the development foci in the west, give structure to the urban and industrial development of the regions crossed and consider the functional regions served by the five existing port foci;

- sectoral development measures relating to farming areas, industrial plant and the environment.

66. The policy involved two scenarios:

- scenario No.1, the equilibrium scenario, supposed that each region would absorb its natural growth;

- scenario No.2, the concentration scenario, supposed that the rural population would grow by 10 per cent in all regions and that half the natural growth

of the western and southern regions would be transferred to the urban centres of the north-east and mid-east, causing the immigration of two million people over a twenty-year period.

67. Measures in implementation of SNAT involved the following six fields: establishment of new infrastructure; encouragement and co-ordination of accompanying measures (consistency of sectoral policies and monitoring); supervision of major projects; control of land occupation in order to safeguard rare resources; continuous assessment of the development of the situation by means of permanent co-ordination with activities under the economic and social plan; institutional adaptation at the central and regional levels; and finally, information and popularization, particularly by consciousness-raising among the general public.

(b) Discussion

68. Mrs. Khantouche's presentation raised a certain number of questions which can be summarized as follows:

- how had the Tunisian national development outline been drawn up; in particular, how had consultations and collaboration taken place?
- at what level was the population involved in the outline (elaboration, application)?
- how much intersection was there between administrative regions and the development regions?
- were there decentralized executing agencies?
- of the national development outline and the economic development plan, which took precedence?
- was the outline not over-ambitious, given Tunisia's economic circumstances?
- were there plans for institutional deconcentration, decentralization or regionalization?

69. In reply, Mrs. Khantouche explained that a circular had been sent to ministries asking them to nominate a representatives to an inter-departmental co-ordination committee, chaired by the Minister of Amenities and Housing, with ninety members all of whom were top-level officials in ministerial departments. Tunisia had many studies, but it had not previously had any co-ordination between the relevant services and there was a need for mediation which the process selected had filled: the study had been launched in November 1982 and the final documents had been published in June 1985. Within each province or governorate (there were 23 in Tunisia) a pilot scheme in one region had led to the establishment of the iterative method for liaison between regional outlines and the national one. The provinces had been grouped together into development regions. Eight development teams had been set up and had played a very large part in the study. Three research bureau in Tunisia (infrastructure, agriculture, urban growth) had been selected and formed a group. International tenders had resulted in the selection of a Swiss bureau which had joined the three Tunisian ones to draw up the methodology. The study had cost only 300,000 dinars (150 million CFA francs).

It comprised six regional outlines, one national outline, one summary, a national atlas and an atlas for each region. There had been intense consultations within the provinces down to the commune level. A campaign had been launched to convince the general public. The most important features were the communications arteries and the amenities. There was no conflict of precedence between land development and the economic development plan; they were closely related although their outlooks were not the same. The central Commisariat for Regional Development had used the national outline as a unitying framework and was now drawing up special development plans for the deprived regions (7th plan). The provinces were to be provided with development outlines consistent with the regional one. The study on migration had been conducted on the basis of censuses and extrapolation in the case of the concentration scenario, and of calculations based on the maintenance of existing equilibrium. The point of the strategy was to find a middle point. The communes and provinces represented decentralized territorial units. Tunisia was studying the introduction of a regionalization policy but was at the moment only in the preliminary stages.

Other matters (agenda item 10)

70. A presentation not included in the agenda was made for information purposes by Mr. Diakité Faly on town finances in the interior of the Ivory Coast.

71. The various approaches taken within this study on towns in the interior of the Ivory Coast, whether to the analysis of their financial standing or to the investments that had been made there, had suggested the idea of contracts between the Government (operating through the Ministry of Economy, Finance and Planning) and the towns concerned which, during the life of the five-year plan, would bind both to a commitment to carry out public investment.

72. The contracts would have a number of original features. Their first concern would be to encourage economic development, directly or indirectly. Urban amenities (considered "inevitable") would not be taken into consideration except where they encouraged economic development. Investment aimed at improving the urban image of the towns would be specially favoured. The contracts took community participation for granted, in particular participation by the economic elite which would make investments to match the public money. The contracts would therefore be drawn up in accordance with the aspirations of the towns concerned, and the programme would be finalized by agreement between the two parties. The signing of the contracts would be of great symbolic value as a sign of commitment. It was believed that, within this new setting, the type of procedure that resulted and tenor of the first contracts would be crucial to the success of the policy.

III. RECOMMENDATIONS

73. The Group of Experts,

Having examined carefully the present situation as regards the integration of land development and national economic and social development plans,

Convinced that such integration is vitally necessary to harmonious development and in keeping with the social, economic and cultural aspirations of African countries,

Noting with concern the growing regional disparity within African countries,

Concerned at the fact that the services responsible for human development have not often played an important role in most African countries,

Recommends the following:

1. African States must combine and make national economic and social development planning consistent with the spatial planning of their national territory, of which human settlements planning forms an integral part;

2. Spatial planning must be based on economically cohesive areas (or development regions) untrammelled by administrative divisions and lending themselves to co-ordination and international co-operation in order to bring man into better accord with his environment. Each such region must contain at least one or two major urban foci with communal amenities and attractive infrastructure which can rapidly attain a dimensional threshold generating external economies and offering opportunities for cumulative development;

3. To attain the objective of integrated development, African countries must first rely on their own forces and, above all, base their economic and special development on resources and potential available in their environment and not on requirements alone, as is often the case;

4. In view of the weaknesses now discovered in the sectoral approach and the comprehensive nature of land development, it is important to adopt an approach combining studies of the urban and rural environment, although the accent should be on the specific nature of each area;

5. International development aid institutions should take account of the developing countries' national objectives and involve national staff closely in the various study and execution phases of projects;

6. In view of the need to enhance the role and importance of rural human settlements in the framework of land development policy and economic and social development, it is important to define the concept of rural human settlements clearly and precisely using pertinent criteria which include demography, morphology and functions;

7. The establishment of spatial development plans should give rise to the formation of an inter-ministerial committee which can transcend the normal divides between different sectors and co-ordinate them at the relevant spatial level (national, regional, local). Representatives of the general public and social and professional groups should work with this committee in a consultative role;

8. To prevent undisciplined housing growth, land speculation and expensive intervention a posteriori, spontaneous settlements must be cleaned up and housing sites must be developed and created to satisfy requirements in terms of both quantity (keeping up with population growth) and quality (costs kept in line with income and designs suited to established life styles);

9. To allow local communities (regions, communes or rural communities) to take effective part in the preparation and execution of human settlements planning policy, they must be given real decision-making powers and authority over their own operations and be accountable for that responsibility to both the State and the population concerned;

10. To ensure the success of human settlements programmes, Government should take organizational steps to ensure that the people concerned are informed, participate actively and are involved in the implementation process;

11. In the preparation of national land development plans, energetic steps must be taken to avoid irreversable imbalances between areas amassing benefits and opportunities and underdeveloped areas left out of the development process;

12. To develop and integrate human settlements it is necessary to encourage productive economic activities and, in exceptional cases, the provision of amenities within the selected development foci. It is also important to establish these foci firmly within a communications framework permitting intensive commerce and offering increasing contact with the rest of the national, subregional and international economy;

13. Permanent institutional machinery needs to be set up to:

(a) Make officials aware of the problems of land development and the scope and implications of their decisions for economic and special planning;

(b) Set up and maintain a national data bank, updating the principal selected indicators regularly. The accent here will be on cartography, an essential feature of spatial planning, and the use of remote sensing and computerized methods of collecting and processing the data obtained efficiently and rapidly;

(c) To enforce the directives of the plan, either by controlling investment-related expenditure or by handling financial resources directly;

(d) To ensure that programmes for the development of local resources and the objectives of the plan remain consistent and, if necessary, revising the plan in the light of new constraints and opportunities,

14. In the sphere of training and research on human settlements, steps must be taken to accelerate the training of staff of sufficient quality and in sufficient quantity on the basis of the recommendations made during the meeting of the group of experts on regional human settlements training facilities and mechanisms (E/ECA/HUS/6/Add.1, Addis Ababa, 1-4 November 1983);

15. Given that direct employment in agriculture is the largest generator of secondary employment in Africa, and that the migration which is sustaining the urban explosion has its roots in rural underemployment, rural development strategies must not be overlooked in policies for the development of human settlements, for towns can grow harmoniously and healthily only on the basis of farming surpluses from the hinterland;

16. African States should use incentives rather than controls to direct population settlement. For example, if one wishes to limit the explosion of primary cities, it is more effective to promote the growth of carefully chosen intermediate centres, or to ensure that agricultural incomes rise, than to try explicitly to check the growth of the large cities;

17. Governments should take energetic measures for the better organization of the services responsible for land development;

18. ECA should organize periodic seminars in different countries. It is recommended that sufficient resources should be placed at ECA's disposal for this purpose;

19. Just as there are traditional, well-defined indicators in macro-economic spheres which allow national economic developments to be followed and compared, unified indicators must be drawn up and adopted by all countries to apply to the spheres of land development and human settlements. This will make it possible to monitor how the various spatial plans (national and local) progress with time, and make comparisions between towns, regions and countries.

Adoption of the report and closure of the meeting (agenda item 11)

74. The Group of Experts on Guidelines and Indicators for the Preparation of National Models for Integrated Human Settlements and National Socio-Economic Planning, having considered its draft report and recommendations, adopted them with some modifications.

75. The meeting was declared closed by the Chairman, who thanked all participants for their support and understanding during the meeting. She paid tribute to ECA for having convened and organized the meeting on a subject of capital importance. She expressed the hope that the meeting would mark the beginning of fruitful exchanges between African countries in the sphere of human settlements management.

76. The representative of the ECA Secretariat congratulated the participants on the quality of the work they had accomplished, despite the short time at their disposal. He thanked them for accepting ECA's invitation in spite of their heavy professional obligations. Conclusing, he expressed the hope that the participants' recommendations would be followed up in their respective countries.